

Comparison of Switching and Biofilm Formation between MTL-Homozygous Strains of Candida albicans and Candida dubliniensis

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Candida albicans and Candida dubliniensis are highly related species that share the same main developmental programs. In C. albicans, it has been demonstrated that the biofilms formed by strains heterozygous and homozygous at the mating type locus (MTL) differ functionally, but studies rarely identify the MTL configuration. This becomes a particular problem in studies of C. dubliniensis, given that one-third of natural strains are MTL homozygous. For that reason, we have analyzed MTL-homozygous strains of C. dubliniensis for their capacity to switch from white to opaque, the stability of the opaque phenotype, CO₂ induction of switching, pheromone induction of adhesion, the effects of minority opaque cells on biofilm thickness and dry weight, and biofilm architecture in comparison with C. albicans. Our results reveal that C. dubliniensis strains switch to opaque at lower average frequencies, exhibit a far lower level of opaque phase stability, are not stimulated to switch by high CO₂, exhibit more variability in biofilm architecture, and most notably, form mature biofilms composed predominately of pseudohyphae rather than true hyphae. Therefore, while several traits of MTL-homozygous strains of C. dubliniensis appear to be degenerating or have been lost, others, most notably several related to biofilm formation, have been conserved. Within this context, the possibility is considered that C. dubliniensis is transitioning from a hypha-dominated to a pseudohypha-dominated biofilm and that aspects of C. dubliniensis colonization may provide insights into the selective pressures that are involved.

In the evolution of species, developmental programs rapidly evolve in response to the selective pressures of environmental change and decay when those selective pressures weaken or disappear (1-3). Decay is most obvious among strains within species with predominately clonal population structures (i.e., species that rarely undergo recombination), since they result in increased strain variability (4–7). A remarkable example of the apparent decay of developmental programs can be found in Candida dubliniensis, a close relative of the more common opportunistic yeast pathogen Candida albicans (8-11). Candida dubliniensis and Candida albicans diverged approximately 20 million years ago (12), soon after the Eocene/Oligocene period, at approximately the same time primates evolved. The two species share approximately 96% of their genes (13) and undergo similar developmental programs, such as filamentation (14, 15), white-opaque switching (16), and mating (16). However, while these developmental programs appear to have been highly conserved among strains of C. albicans, they are highly variable or diminished among strains of Candida dubliniensis. The two species also exhibit differences in a number of other traits, including the utilization of carbon sources (17-19), adherence to buccal epithelium in glucose-based medium (20), the induction of chlamydospores (21), the adhesive characteristics of mating cells in suspension (16), and the filamentous phenotype of cells in biofilms (22), although the last two differences were not reported for a variety of strains.

It has been suggested that degeneration of developmental programs, reflected in the variability between strains of *C. dubliniensis*, is due to differences in species-specific genes (13), differences in the expansion of select gene families (13), and pseudogenization (23). In addition, the high rate of genomic reorganization, reflected by highly variable and unstable karyotypes (24–26), has also been suggested as a cause. But there is one additional factor that, surprisingly, is rarely considered in studies of *C. dubliniensis* or even in reviews of *C. dubliniensis* variability and virulence, namely, the configuration of the mating type locus. The reason

this omission is surprising is that in 2004 (16), an analysis of the mating type locus revealed that one-third of natural C. dubliniensis strains were MTL homozygous (a/a or α/α), compared to approximately 8% (27) for C. albicans. It has been demonstrated in C. albicans that MTL-heterozygous and MTL-homozygous cells differ dramatically both phenotypically and in their developmental potential. They differ in their capacity to switch between white and opaque (28, 29), their capacity to mate (29, 30), the functional traits of the alternative biofilms that they form (31–33), the signal transduction pathways regulating the formation of these alternative biofilms (32), the transcription factors targeted in alternative biofilm formation (32, 34), pheromone-induced adhesivity and gene transcription (32, 34–37), susceptibility to fluconazole, itraconazole, voriconazole, and flucytosine (27), and virulence (38). Because of the high level of MTL homozygosity among natural strains of C. dubliniensis, any unique phenotypic traits of MTLhomozygous strains must be discriminated to assess past studies of strain variability and the need for discrimination between MTL configurations in future studies.

To this end, we have initiated a comparison of the variability of *MTL*-homozygous *C. dubliniensis* strains with that of *MTL*-homozygous *C. albicans* strains for a number of characteristics re-

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lated to white-opaque switching. The comparison includes the frequency of switching, maintenance of the opaque phenotype, the effect of CO₂ on switching, and the effects of pheromone on adhesion and the architecture of the biofilms formed. Our results demonstrate that C. dubliniensis strains exhibit lower mean frequencies of white-to-opaque switching, higher instability of the opaque phenotype, uniform absence of CO2-induced white to opaque switching, more variability in the formation of the basal yeast cell polylayer of biofilms, a near-uniform conversion from an upper region of vertical hyphae to a mesh composed predominately of pseudohyphae, and a reduction in extracellular matrix (ECM). In marked contrast, white cells of MTL-homozygous strains of C. dubliniensis have retained uniform shape and size and uniform responsiveness to pheromone, as is the case in *C. albicans*. More surprisingly, even though MTL-homozygous biofilms of C. dubliniensis are on average significantly thinner than those of C. albicans, the average dry weight and the stimulation of dry weight by minority opaque cells are similar among strains of the two species. The reduction in switching frequency, the instability of the opaque phase, the variability of the opaque cell phenotype, the absence or loss of CO₂ induction, and the variability in biofilm architecture could all reflect the highly unstable genome of C. dubliniensis. However, the conservation or uniformity of other traits, including the uniform yeast phase phenotype of white cells, similar extant and variability of pheromone-induced adhesion, similar average biofilm dry weight, and similar minority opaque cell induction of biofilm dry weight, as well as the near-uniform transition from a predominately hyphal to pseudohyphal biofilm, together suggest that not all phenotypic traits are decaying and some differences may have evolved due to selective pressures different from those governing the phenotypic repertoire of C. albicans.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Yeast strains and growth conditions. The C. albicans and C. dubliniensis strains used in this study and their MTL genotypes are listed in Tables S1 and S2 in the supplemental material. Cells were grown from frozen stocks and maintained at 25°C on agar plates containing supplemented Lee's medium (39, 40) containing 5 μg/ml phloxine B, which differentially stained opaque colonies and sectors red (41). Cells in the white or opaque phase were also verified microscopically prior to use. Cells used for each experiment were grown to stationary phase in liquid supplemented Lee's medium at 25°C for 48 h. The species status of strains was verified by PCR using the protocols of McCullough et al. (42) and Romeo and Criseo (43). Both methods use specific size polymorphisms to distinguish *C. albicans* from C. dubliniensis. While the method developed by McCullough et al. (42) separates the two species based on size polymorphism of the intron of the 25S rRNA gene, the Romeo and Criseo (43) approach identifies the two species based on HWP1 polymorphisms. The two methods resulted in the same species identification for the strains tested.

Biofilm development. Biofilms were developed on silicone elastomers in the wells of cluster dishes in RPMI 1640 medium containing 165 mM MOPS (morpholinepropanesulfonic acid; pH 7.0) (referred to here as "RPMI medium"). Silicone elastomer discs were cut from 0.04-in.-thick silicone elastomer sheets (Bentec Medical), using a 10-mm biopsy punch (Acu-Punch; Acuderm, Inc.). The discs were washed and sterilized as previously described (35), placed in a 24-well cluster dish (Costar; Corning, Inc.), and incubated overnight in 2 ml of RPMI medium at 29°C. The temperature of 29°C was selected, since temperatures above 34°C induce opaque-to-white switching. The incubation medium in which the silicone elastomer discs were incubated was replaced with 2 ml of fresh RPMI medium containing 2 × 10⁷ stationary-phase cells. Opaque cell stimula-

tion of MTL-homozygous white cell biofilms was performed by adding a minority (10%) opaque cell mixture (1:1 ratio of C. albicans opaque P37005 a/a cells and opaque WO-1 α/α cells, or a 1:1 ratio of C. dubliniensis d81217 a/a cell and opaque d126423 α/α cells) to a majority (90%) of white a/a cells (36). The cells were allowed to adhere without agitation for 90 min at 29°C. After adhesion, the discs were removed and gently rinsed with Dulbecco's modified phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), without the cations Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} . The discs were then transferred to a 12-well cluster dish containing 2 ml of fresh RPMI 1640 medium. The discs were incubated at 29°C, on a platform rocker with 60° total deflection every 7.5 s over a 48-h period. The discs supporting the biofilms were gently rinsed with PBS for analysis.

Biofilm thickness and architecture. Forty-eight-hour biofilms were fixed with 2% (vol/vol) paraformaldehyde as previously described (35). After fixation and a PBS rinse, the biofilms were stained with calcofluor white M2R for cell wall chitin (Sigma-Aldrich). Biofilm thickness and architecture were analyzed as described previously with minor changes. Briefly, imaging was accomplished using a Bio-Rad 2100 two-photon laser scanning confocal microscope (LSCM) equipped with a Mai-Tai infrared laser (IR). Calcofluor white was excited with the IR laser at 780 nm, and emission was captured at 460 nm. A z-series of 500 scans were collected using the LaserSharp software (Bio-Rad). High-resolution z-stack images with an interval step of 0.25 μm were processed using Imaris 3D Image Processing & Analysis software (Bitplane). Orthogonal slices of $\sim 100~\mu m$ were projected to afford a 90° pitch profile perspective. To assess the architecture of the midhyphal region, 20 scans were extracted from the middle of the stack and analyzed.

SEM. Biofilms were fixed in 2.5% glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M cacodylate buffer. After postfixation in 1% osmium, the biofilms were dehydrated through a graded ethanol series and further dehydrated by 50% hexamethyldisilazane (HMDS) followed by two rinses in 100% HMDS. The biofilms were allowed to air dry prior to sputter-coating with a 60:40 mixture of gold and palladium. The biofilms were viewed using a Hitachi S-4800 scanning electron microscope (SEM).

Adhesion assay. α-Pheromone-induced adhesion was assessed following incubation of 1 ml of white a/a cells at a concentration of 5 \times 10⁷/ml in fresh supplemented Lee's medium at 25°C in the wells of a Costar 12-well cluster plate (Corning Life Sciences) in the presence or absence of 3×10^{-6} M synthetic 13-mer α -pheromone with a sequence of GFRLTNFGYFEPG (Open Biosystems) according to methods previously published (33, 36). This pheromone has previously been demonstrated to induce the mating response in opaque cells of C. dubliniensis (16). The synthetic α -pheromone was dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO). For controls in the absence of pheromone, an equal amount of DMSO was added. After 16 h of incubation, the wells were washed gently with PBS. Adhesion was then quantified by releasing cells from the well bottoms using a 0.05% trypsin-EDTA solution (Invitrogen). The adherent cells were then counted with a hemocytometer. For comparative purposes, the means and standard deviations of three independent wells for each strain were calculated and presented in a bar chart. The adhesion experiment and all other experiments in this study were repeated at least twice, and similar results were obtained.

The **a**-pheromone-induced adhesion of α/α cells assay was performed in a similar fashion, except that instead of pheromone, 10% of an opaque cell mixture (1:1 **a/a** and α/α) was added to 90% white α/α test cells (44). The combination of majority white and minority opaque cells was then added to the wells of a Costar 12-well cluster plate and processed as described above.

Biofilm dry weight. White cell biofilms were generated without (-) and with (+) a 10% opaque cell mixture. After 48 h of incubation, the biofilms adhering to the silicone elastomer discs were washed in PBS. Biofilms were resuspended in a 0.05% trypsin-EDTA solution and transferred into 1.5 ml preweighed Seal Rite 1.5 Natural Microcentrifuge Tubes (USA Scientific). The samples were centrifuged (10 min, 14,000 rpm) and the supernatants discarded. The biofilm material was then desiccated us-

ing a SpeedVac Concentrator (Savant), and the preweighed tubes were weighed a second time to determine biofilm dry weight.

Hyphal and pseudohyphal vacuole imaging. Forty-eight-hour biofilms were briefly inverted onto a 20-μl droplet of water on a glass slide. Representative hyphae and pseudohyphae from the upper region of each biofilm were released into the water droplet. The water droplet was then dispersed by tapping a 22- by 60-mm coverslip over the droplet. Differential interference contrast (DIC) images were acquired using a Nikon TE2000 inverted microscope with an attached Canon EOS Rebel T3i digital camera.

RESULTS

Spontaneous switching from white to opaque. The whiteopaque transition was originally discovered in the C. albicans α/α strain W0-1 (45) and subsequently demonstrated to occur in most natural MTL-homozygous strains within the employed thresholds of resolution (28). It was subsequently demonstrated to occur in MTL-homozygous strains of C. dubliniensis (16) and Candida tropicalis (46). Switching to the opaque phenotype by MTL-homozygous white cells is a requisite for mating competence of all three species (16, 29, 30, 46). MTL-homozygous cells switch spontaneously and reversibly between the white cell phenotype, which forms colonies that are white to light pink when grown on agar containing phloxine-B, and the opaque cell phenotype, which stains bright red on that agar (45). White appears to be the default phenotype, since deletion of the master switch gene, WOR1, blocks cells in the white phenotype (47-49). It was previously shown that 9 of 17 a/a strains and 6 of 10 α/α strains of C. dubliniensis underwent spontaneous switching (16), but a side-byside comparison of variability between C. albicans and C. dubliniensis strains at the same stringency (1/1,000 to 10,000) was not performed. We therefore serially plated at high density (approximately 300 colonies per 10-cm plate) cells of 26 natural MTLhomozygous strains of C. albicans and 27 natural MTL-homozygous strains of C. dubliniensis. The origin and MTL configuration of the strains are presented in Table S1 in the supplemental material. Cells were plated on agar containing supplemented Lee's medium, and the plates were incubated for 7 days at 25°C in air. Switching in a strain was scored as the formation of one or more opaque colonies or white colonies with one or more opaque sectors among a total of approximately 15,000 colonies. We found that 85% of C. albicans MTL-homozygous strains and 56% of C. dubliniensis MTL-homozygous strains underwent the white-toopaque transition, at the frequency threshold of \geq 7 × 10⁻⁵ (see Table S1 in the supplemental material). We then serially plated cells from opaque colonies or sectors of the two species in the same manner (>300 colonies per 10-cm plate) to assess the stability of the opaque phenotype in each species. Strains in which <10% of the plated opaque cells switched back to white were considered relatively stable for the opaque phenotype. Of the 22 strains of C. albicans that spontaneously switched from white to opaque, 21 (94%) exhibited opaque phase stability (see Table S1 in the supplemental material). Of the 15 strains of C. dubliniensis that switched from white to opaque, only 4 (27%) exhibited opaque phase stability (see Table S1 in the supplemental material).

To investigate further the decreased propensity of *MTL*-homozygous *C. dubliniensis* strains to switch from white to opaque and the increased propensity to switch from opaque back to white, we compared the switching frequencies of five *C. albicans* strains (12C, P34028, P37005, L26, P57072), randomly selected from the 22 strains that switched from white to opaque, with the five *MTL*-

homozygous strains of *C. dubliniensis* with the most stable opaque phenotype assessed in the high-density plating experiments (d88014, d90006, d81217, d126423, ANSA5). White and opaque cells of each strain were plated at low density (approximately 30 to 60 colonies per 10-cm plate) on agar containing supplemented Lee's medium and were incubated for 7 days at 25°C in air. For the five random *C. albicans* strains, the frequency of white-to-opaque switching of two strains was $<10^{-4}$, while that of the remaining three were 4×10^{-4} , 9×10^{-4} , and 6×10^{-3} (Fig. 1A). The frequencies of white-to-opaque switching of the five *C. dubliniensis* strains were $<2\times10^{-4}$, $<4\times10^{-4}$, $<3\times10^{-4}$, $<2\times10^{-4}$, and $<2\times10^{-4}$ (Fig. 1A).

All *C. albicans* and *C. dubliniensis* strains switched from opaque to white at frequencies far higher than from white to opaque (Fig. 1A). Furthermore, *C. dubliniensis* strains switched from opaque to white at far higher frequencies than *C. albicans* strains (Fig. 1A). Of the five selected *C. albicans* strains, the frequency of switching from opaque back to white ranged from 6×10^{-3} to 4×10^{-1} (Fig. 1A). In marked contrast, the frequency of switching from opaque to white for *C. dubliniensis* strains ranged between 1.1×10^{-1} and 9.8×10^{-1} (Fig. 1A). The average frequency of opaque-to-white switching of the *C. dubliniensis* strains was 5×10^{-1} , while that of the *C. albicans* strains was 1.4×10^{-1} , a 3-fold difference.

In addition to a higher level of instability of the opaque phenotype, opaque phase cells of all five *MTL*-homozygous *C. dubliniensis* strains, when plated at low density, formed not only majority smooth white colonies at high frequencies, but also a minority of alternative (Alt) colony morphologies (Fig. 1D and 2B). These Alt colonies were irregular and mottled (Fig. 2B). None of the five *C. albicans* strains formed Alt colonies.

Variable opaque cell morphologies. In addition to instability of the opaque phase colony morphology, we had previously observed variability of the opaque cell phenotype within opaque colonies of a single C. dubliniensis strain (16). We therefore compared the uniformity of cellular phenotypes within individual white and opaque colonies among the five MTL-homozygous test strains of C. albicans and white, opaque, and Alt colonies of the five MTL-homozygous test strains of C. dubliniensis. Cells from single white (Wh) colonies of both the C. albicans and C. dubliniensis strains were equally round and relatively uniform in diameter (Fig. 2A and B, respectively). Although the shapes of opaque cells varied slightly between C. albicans strains, they were all at least twice as large as white cells and relatively uniform both in size and in shape for cells from individual colonies (Fig. 2A). This uniformity was not the case for cells from individual C. dubliniensis opaque colonies, which exhibited far more morphological variability and size heterogeneity than those of individual C. albicans colonies (Fig. 2B). Interestingly, cells from the Alt colonies of C. dubliniensis differed dramatically in shape and size between strains, including large and round (ANSA5, d88014), small and round (d90006), and small and elongate (d81217) (Fig. 2B), but the cell morphology within individual Alt colonies was uniform (Fig. 2B).

Loss of CO₂ induction. Huang et al. (50) demonstrated that high (20%) CO_2 induced white-to-opaque switching and stabilized the opaque phenotype in one strain of *C. albicans*. We therefore tested this response in the five *MTL*-homozygous test strains of *C. albicans* and the five *MTL*-homozygous test strains of *C. dubliniensis*. High CO_2 caused a dramatic increase in the frequency of switching from white to opaque in all five *C. albicans*

A. Air White to opaque

Opaque to white

	C.all	oicans		·-	C.dubli	niensis			C.al	bicans			C.dubli	iniensis	
Strain	MTL genotype	No. colonies	Switch frequency	Strain	MTL genotype	No. colonies	Switch frequency	Strain	MTL genotype	No. colonies	Switch frequency	Strain	MTL genotype	No. colonies	Switch frequency
12C	a/a	4620	9x10 ⁻⁴	d88014	a/a	4698	<2x10 ⁻⁴	12C	a/a	1215	6x10 ⁻³	d88014	a/a	846	9.8x10 ⁻¹
P34028	a/a	2923	<3x10 ⁻⁴	d90006	α/α	2366	<4x10 ⁻⁴	P34028	a/a	783	9x10 ⁻³	d90006	α/α	1084	2.2x10 ⁻¹
P37005	a/a	2695	4x10 ⁻⁴	d81217	a/a	3960	<3x10 ⁻⁴	P37005	a/a	855	2x10 ⁻²	d81217	a/a	913	1.4x10 ⁻¹
L26	a/a	3155	6x10 ⁻³	d126423	$3 \alpha/\alpha$	3388	<2x10 ⁻⁴	L26	a/a	1488	4x10 ⁻¹	d126423	3 α/α	744	1.1x10 ⁻¹
P57072	α / α	3498	<3x10 ⁻⁴	ANSA5	α / α	4021	<2x10 ⁻⁴	P57072	$\alpha l \alpha$	996	3x10 ⁻¹	ANSA5	α/α	504	8.7x10 ⁻¹
Mean ±	S.D.	1.5	± 2.6x10 ⁻³	Mean			<3x10 ⁻⁴	Mean ± S	S.D.	1.4	± 1.9x10 ⁻¹	Mean ± S	S.D.	4.6	± 4.3x10 ⁻¹

B. 20% CO₂

White to opaque

Opaque to white

	C.alk	oicans			C.dubli	niensis	4		C.al	bicans			C.dubli	iniensis	3
Strain	MTL genotype	No. colonies	Switch frequency	Strain	MTL genotype	No. colonies	Switch frequency	Strain	MTL genotype	No. colonies	Switch frequency	Strain	MTL genotype	No. colonies	Switch frequency
12C	a/a	297	10x10 ⁻¹	d88014	a/a	310	<3x10 ⁻³	12C	a/a	163	<6x10 ⁻³	d88014	a/a	136	5x10 ⁻²
P34028	a/a	196	8x10 ⁻¹	d90006	α/α	203	<4x10 ⁻³	P34028	a/a	156	<6x10 ⁻³	d90006	α/α	162	2x10 ⁻²
P37005	a/a	203	9x10 ⁻¹	d81217	a/a	251	<4x10 ⁻³	P37005	a/a	169	<6x10 ⁻³	d81217	a/a	159	4x10 ⁻²
L26	a/a	239	10x10 ⁻¹	d126423	$3 \alpha/\alpha$	225	<4x10 ⁻³	L26	a/a	215	<5x10 ⁻³	d126423	$3 \alpha/\alpha$	117	1x10 ⁻¹
P57072	α/α	217	10x10 ⁻¹	ANSA5	α/α	256	8x10 ⁻³	P57072	α / α	174	<6x10 ⁻³	ANSA5	α/α	49	3x10 ⁻¹
Mean ± 9	S.D.		9 ± 1x10 ⁻¹	Mean ± S	S.D.	1.6 ±	3.6x10 ⁻³	Mean			<6x10 ⁻³	Mean ±	S.D.		1 ± 1x10 ⁻¹

C. C. albicans (P37005)

White cells plated Opaque cells plated 20% CO₂ Air 20% CO₂

D. C. dubliniensis (ANSA5)

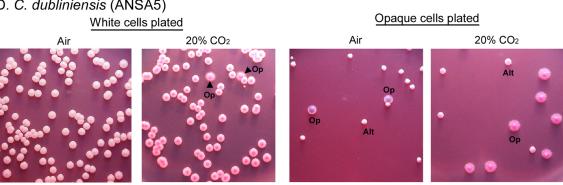


FIG 1 Strains of Candida dubliniensis switch from white to opaque at lower frequencies than strains of Candida albicans and exhibit opaque phase instability. (A) Frequencies of white to opaque and opaque to white in air for five randomly selected C. albicans strains and five Candida dubliniensis strains with the highest white-to-opaque switching frequencies. The former were randomly selected from 26 natural MTL-homozygous strains and the latter from 27 natural MTLhomozygous strains based on initial high-density plating experiments. The frequencies were obtained from low-density plating experiments (30 to 60 colonies per 10-cm plate). (B) Frequencies in 20% CO₂. Standard deviations were calculated for the data expressed in percentages and then converted to frequencies. The significance of the difference between the switching frequency (expressed as a percentage) distributions among C. albicans and C. dubliniensis strains was assessed by the nonparametric two-tailed Mann-Whitney test. In air, the differences observed were not significant. In contrast, in the presence of 20% CO₂, both white-to-opaque and opaque-to-white switching frequencies were significantly (P < 0.05) different between C. albicans and C. dubliniensis. (C) Morphologies and phloxine B staining of colonies of a representative C. albicans strain (P37005) grown in air or 20% CO₂. Opaque colonies are wider and stain red. (D) Morphologies and phloxine B staining of colonies of a representative C. dubliniensis strain (ANSA5) developed in air or 20% CO₂. Op, opaque colonies; Alt, alternative colonies.

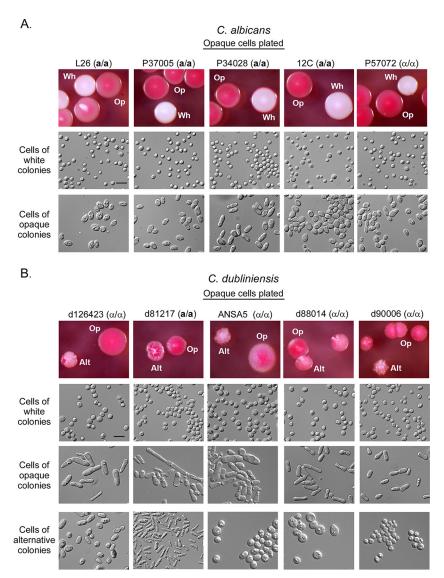


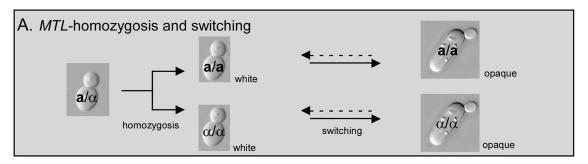
FIG 2 Opaque cells from opaque colonies of *C. dubliniensis*, but not *C. albicans*, exhibit intracolony heterogeneity. (A) Examples at high magnification of white and opaque colonies formed on low-density plates and the cell phenotypes within them, for five *MTL*-homozygous strains of *C. albicans*. (B) Examples at high magnification of white, opaque, and alternative colonies and the cell phenotypes within them, for five *MTL*-homozygous strains of *C. dubliniensis*. Op, opaque; Wh, white; Alt, alternative. Bars, 5 μm.

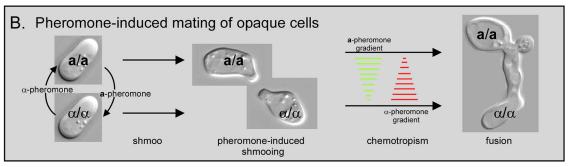
strains. The frequencies ranged from 75 to 100% (8 \times 10⁻¹ to 10 \times 10⁻¹) (Fig. 1B). This represented a 660-fold increase over the average frequency in air. In marked contrast, the frequency of white-to-opaque switching in 20% CO₂ was undetectable in four of the five *C. dubliniensis* test strains (<10⁻⁴; 8 \times 10⁻³ for one strain, ANSA5). This represents an average negligible increase in frequency over that in air (1.2 \times 10⁻³ and <3 \times 10⁻⁴, respectively). These results indicate that *C. dubliniensis* either never possessed or lost this response.

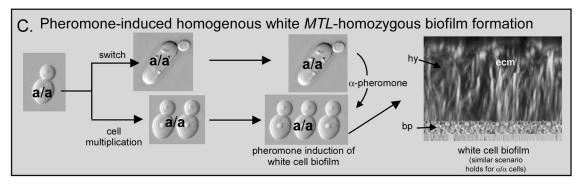
To assess the stabilization of the opaque phenotype by $\rm CO_2$ (50), opaque cells from opaque colonies obtained from high-density plating experiments (>300 colonies per plate) in air by the five test strains of each species, were plated at low density (~30 colonies per plate) and then immediately incubated in 20% $\rm CO_2$ at 25°C for 7 days. For the five test strains of *C. albicans*, no detectable switching from opaque to white was observed ($<6 \times 10^{-3}$)

(Fig. 1A). In marked contrast, the frequency of switching from opaque to white in the *C. dubliniensis* strains varied between 2 and 31% (2×10^{-2} to 3×10^{-1}) (Fig. 1A), close to the range of 11 to 98% (1×10^{-1} to 10×10^{-1}) observed in air (Fig. 1A). These results demonstrate that *C. dubliniensis* either never possessed or lost not only CO_2 induction of white-to-opaque switching but also CO_2 stabilization of the opaque phenotype.

Complex biofilm formation. In order for \mathbf{a}/α cells of both *C. albicans* (29) and *C. dubliniensis* (16) to mate, they must first undergo homozygosis at the mating type locus (*MTL*) to \mathbf{a}/\mathbf{a} or α/α and then switch from the white to the opaque phenotype (Fig. 3A and B). In the formation of a biofilm by a homogeneous population of \mathbf{a}/\mathbf{a} white cells of *C. albicans*, in a modified version (34–36) of the model developed by Douglas and coworkers (51–53), minority opaque cells generated by spontaneous switching ($\sim 10^{-3}$ to 10^{-4}) release in an unorthodox fashion α-pheromone, which







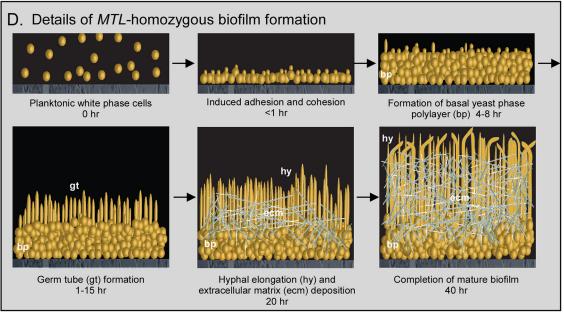


FIG 3 Steps in the process of biofilm formation leading from the MTL configuration \mathbf{a}/α to \mathbf{a}/\mathbf{a} or α/α , in the formation of a C. albicans MTL-homozygous white cell biofilm. (A) MTL homozygosis, from the MTL \mathbf{a}/α configuration to the \mathbf{a}/\mathbf{a} or α/α configuration of white cells, followed by the switch from white to opaque. (B) Pheromone-induced mating between opaque \mathbf{a}/\mathbf{a} and α/α cells. Green and red gradients of \mathbf{a} and α pheromone direct mating tubes in the processes of chemotropism and fusion. (C) A paracrine system leads to white cell biofilm formation, in which, in the example here, a white \mathbf{a}/\mathbf{a} cell switches to the opaque phenotype, which then releases, in an unorthodox fashion, α -pheromone, which stimulates majority white \mathbf{a}/\mathbf{a} cell biofilm formation. (D) Changes in the cellular architecture in the $\mathbf{i}n$ vitro formation of MTL-homozygous biofilms of C. albicans under the conditions of the Douglas model adapted by Daniels et al. (34, 35). The white threads at 20 and 40 h depict extracellular matrix. bp, basal yeast cell polylayer; gt, germ tubes; hy, hyphae; ECM, extracellular matrix.

stimulates majority a/a white cells to form a biofilm, in a paracrine induction system (Fig. 3C) (32). Addition of minority (10%) opaque cells (1:1, a/a and α/α) presumably serves to increase the level of α -pheromone and thus enhances the thickness of a mature a/a biofilm (34–36). In the process of generating complex a/α , and a/a or α/α , biofilms, planktonic cells are first grown to stationary phase in supplemented Lee's medium, which results in a uniform, unbudded population of planktonic yeast phase cells (39). These uniformly unbudded yeast phase cells are then diluted into RPMI 1640 medium buffered with MOPS (referred to here as RPMI medium) in the wells of a 12-well microtiter dish, with a silicone elastomer disc at the bottom, which serves as the substratum for biofilm development (34-36). The originally planktonic yeast cells settle and adhere to the disc in 1 h. In this model, adhering cells then form a basal yeast cell polylayer through cell multiplication over a 4- to 8-h period (Fig. 3D). Cells at the distal top edge of the basal layer then form germ tubes, which grow into true hyphae (Fig. 3D). As the hyphae elongate, they orient vertically, depositing an extracellular matrix (ECM) (Fig. 3D). After 48 h at 29°C or 37°C, in air or 20% CO₂, the basal layer constitutes approximately 20%, and the upper hypha-ECM layer 80%, of the biofilm volume (34, 35). This scenario (Fig. 3D) holds for homogeneous populations of MTL-heterozygous (a/α) cells and MTL-homozygous $(a/a, \alpha/\alpha \text{ or } a/a \text{ plus } \alpha/\alpha)$ cells and for white cell populations to which 10% opaque cells have been added to stimulate thickness.

Biofilm formation by MTL-heterozygous strains. Using this model, biofilm formation was first compared between a collection of three a/α C. albicans strains and a collection of six a/α C. dub*liniensis* strains. The three C. albicans \mathbf{a}/α test strains formed biofilms with thicknesses ranging between 74 and 78 µm, with a mean \pm standard deviation of 76 \pm 4 μ m (Table 1). All three formed a basal yeast cell polylayer and then an upper region of vertically oriented hyphae encapsulated in ECM (Table 1). In Fig. 4A, a side view of a laser scanning confocal microscope (LSCM) projection image, generated with 500 stacked scans through 125 µm of a calcofluor white-stained biofilm formed by the representative C. albicans a/α strain SC5314, is presented; in Fig. 4B, a scanning electron microscopic (SEM) image of the top view of the hyphal upper region of the biofilm is shown; and in Fig. 4C, an architectural model deduced by examining the individual LSCM scans in the z axis is presented. ECM density was evaluated by increasing brightness, which revealed diffuse staining between the intensely stained hyphae. The upper region of vertical hyphae was affirmed by examining a limited set of 20 LSCM scans halfway through the biofilm (Fig. 5A). The pattern was punctate, indicating the vertical orientation of hyphae (34). The SEM top view of this biofilm (Fig. 4B) revealed the uniformity of the dominating true hyphal phenotype and absence of yeast cell pockets in the upper region, but fixing for SEM does not preserve the vertical orientation of the hyphae.

The six a/α *C. dubliniensis* test strains formed biofilms with thicknesses ranging from 39 to 58 μ m, with a mean \pm standard deviation of 46 \pm 9 μ m, approximately 40% less on average than the mean thickness of the *C. albicans* a/α biofilms (Table 1). Four of the six formed a basal yeast cell polylayer (Table 1). Two of the six (d11, d930953) formed a thick pseudohyphal upper region without a basal yeast cell polylayer, and three (d930664, d930822, d930936) formed a basal yeast cell polylayer and thick upper region of pseudohyphae (Table 1). The pseudohyphae in the five last biofilms were not vertically oriented but rather formed a tangled

mesh, as is evident in the LSCM scans in the middle of the d11 biofilm (Fig. 5B). There was a noticeable reduction in ECM density in the pseudohyphal biofilms of all five of these strains (Table 1). In the biofilms of two of these strains, the basal yeast cell polylayer also contained minority pseudohyphae and hyphae. A side view of an LSCM projection image of the biofilm of C. dubliniensis a/α strain d11 is presented in Fig. 4D; a top view of the pseudohyphae obtained by SEM is presented in Fig. 4E; and the deduced architectural model is presented in Fig. 4F. Only one C. dubliniensis a/α strain, B71507, formed both a basal yeast cell polylayer and an upper region of pseudohyphal patches mixed with vertically oriented hyphae encapsulated in extracellular matrix (Table 1). Intermediate LSCM scans revealed a pattern both punctate and clumped, indicative of a mixture of pseudohyphal patches and vertically oriented hyphae (Fig. 5C). Because B71507 was the only strain that formed vertically oriented hyphae, it was genetically reaffirmed as C. dubliniensis by performing the PCR for 25S rRNA and HWP1 (Fig. 6A and B, respectively). These results revealed that unlike the uniform biofilms of *C. albicans*, the biofilms of *C.* dubliniensis a/α strains were architecturally variable and dominated by pseudohyphae. One strain, B71507, however, formed a biofilm that exhibited some of the architectural features of a *C*. albicans a/α biofilm. It should be noted that the biofilms that did not contain a uniform basal layer of yeast cell polylayer (d11, d930953) were composed of yeast cells plus pseudohyphae (Table 1).

Pheromone-induced adhesion. Pheromone of opposite mating types has been shown to induce adhesiveness of MTL-homozygous white cells (33, 36, 37) and is believed to play a role in establishing the initial yeast cell monolayer on the substratum, the initial step in biofilm formation *in vitro* (Fig. 3D). We therefore tested whether the addition of α -pheromone to planktonic white **a/a** cells of C. *dubliniensis* strains or the addition of 10% opaque cells (50% **a/a**, 50% α/α), a source of **a**-pheromone, to planktonic white C. *dubliniensis* α/α cell strains, induced adhesion.

For every one of the 10 *MTL*-homozygous strains of *C. albicans* tested and every one of the 15 *MTL*-homozygous strains of *C. dubliniensis* tested, incubation for 16 h with either pheromone for **a/a** white cells or 10% opaque cells for α/α white cells resulted on average in a >100-fold increase in adhesion to tissue culture dish bottoms (Fig. 7A and B, respectively). The mean number of adhering cells per well bottom for induced *C. albicans* and *C. dubliniensis* strains was 1.8×10^8 and 1.6×10^8 , respectively (Fig. 7A and B). The variability of induction among strains was reflected by the standard deviations, which were 0.5×10^6 for the set of strains of both species, representing 28% and 31% of the mean, respectively (Fig. 7A and B). Therefore, the average level of induction of adhesion and the variability among strains of *C. dubliniensis* were similar to those of *C. albicans*.

Biofilm formation by MTL-homozygous strains. To compare biofilm formation and the architectures of MTL-homozygous C. albicans and C. dubliniensis biofilms, 12 strains of the former and 8 strains of the latter were analyzed by LSCM. All six $\mathbf{a/a}$ and six α/α strains of C. albicans formed biofilms, which after 48 h of development contained a basal yeast cell polylayer and an upper layer of vertically oriented hyphae encased in ECM (Table 1). A side view of an LSCM projection image of a representative biofilm of a C. albicans $\mathbf{a/a}$ strain, P37005, is presented in Fig. 4G, a top view of hyphae in the upper region obtained by SEM is presented in Fig. 4H, and the architectural model, deduced by individually

TABLE 1 Comparison of biofilm formation of MTL-heterozygous (a/ α) strains of Candida albicans and Candida dubliniensis and MTL-homozygous (a/ α or α / α) strains of the two species^a

Species (MTL zygosity)	MTL configuration	Strain	Biofilm thickness $(\mu m)^b$	Yeast cell basal layer	Hyphal upper layer	Vertical orientation of hyphae	Pseudohyphae	Extracellular matrix
C. albicans	a/\alpha	SC5314	78 ± 5	++++	++++	++++	_	++++
(heterozygous)		P37039	76 ± 2	++++	++++	++++	_	++++
, ,,,		P37037	74 ± 3	++++	++++	++++	_	++++
			76 ± 4					
C. albicans	a/a	P37037	51 ± 3	++++	++++	++++	_	++++
(homozygous)		P37005	57 ± 5	++++	++++	++++	_	++++
		P37039	57 ± 2	++++	++++	++++	_	++++
		P34028	56 ± 2	++++	++++	++++	_	++++
		12C	56 ± 2	++++	++++	++++	_	++++
		L26	58 ± 1	++++	++++	++++	_	++++
			56 ± 3					
	α/α	WO-1	58 ± 3	++++	++++	++++	_	++++
		P37037	61 ± 4	++++	++++	++++	_	++++
		P37039	56 ± 2	++++	++++	++++	_	++++
		P57072	57 ± 2	++++	++++	++++	_	++++
		GC75	60 ± 1	++++	++++	++++	_	++++
		19F	57 ± 1	++++	++++	++++	_	++++
			58 ± 2					
C. dubliniensis	\mathbf{a}/α	d11	39 ± 6	_c	_	_	++++	+
(heterozygous)		d930953	41 ± 2	_ c,e	_	_	++++	+
(heterozygous)		B71507	58 ± 4	+++	+++	+++	++	+++
		d930664	55 ± 4	++++	_	_	++++	+
		d930822	45 ± 3	+++c	_	_	++++	+
		d930936	40 ± 3	$+++^{d}$	_	_	+++	+
			46 ± 9					
C. dubliniensis	a/a	d88014	47 ± 4	+++	_	_	++++	+
(homozygous)		UP16	37 ± 1	$+++^{d}$	+	_	+++	+
		d81217	32 ± 2	+++	_	_	_	+
		UP29	36 ± 2	+++	_	_	++	+
			38 ± 6					
	α/α	ANSA5	33 ± 5	$++^d$	_	_	+++	+
		ANSA28	38 ± 2	+++	_	_	+	+
		d126423	35 ± 2	++++	_	_	+	+
		P86	39 ± 1	+++	+	_	++	+
			36.3 ± 3					

analyzing the 500 LSCM scans, is presented in Fig. 4I. Except for thickness, the architecture of white $\mathbf{a/a}$ biofilms was similar to that of $\mathbf{a/\alpha}$ biofilms of *C. albicans* (Table 1). Note that the SEM revealed true hyphae with no yeast phase cell pockets (Fig. 4H), as did the SEM of the representative biofilm of the $\mathbf{a/\alpha}$ *C. albicans* strains SC5314 (Fig. 4B).

All four a/a and all four α/α strains of C. dubliniensis formed a basal yeast cell polylayer, although they were not as uniformly thick among strains as those of C. albicans a/a and α/α strains (Table 1). The basal yeast cell polylayers of three strains contained pseudohyphae and hyphae among the yeast cells (Table 1). None of the biofilms of the eight MTL-homozygous C. dubliniensis strains formed a thick, uniform upper layer of vertically oriented

hyphae. Three strains formed a thick upper mesh of pseudohyphae, two a reduced upper layer of pseudohyphae, two an upper layer containing an intermediate amount of pseudohyphae, and one, d81217 (a/a), no upper layer of either hyphae or pseudohyphae (Table 1). The biofilm of the last strain consisted entirely of a basal yeast cell polylayer (Table 1). All of these *MTL*-homozygous strains appeared to contain reduced ECM (Table 1). A side view of an LSCM projection image of the biofilm and of strain d88014 (a/a), an SEM of the pseudohyphae in the upper region, and the architectural model deduced by individually analyzing the 500 LSCM scans are presented in Fig. 4J, K, and L, respectively. Note that the upper layer was uniformly composed of pseudohyphae (Fig. 4K).

 $[^]b$ Values in boldface indicate the average and standard deviation for the set of strains listed immediately above.

^c Basal layer contains predominately pseudohyphae and minority yeast phase cells.

 $^{^{\}it d}$ Basal layer contains yeast phase cells, pseudohyphae, and hyphae.

^e Basal layer is patchy or fragmented.

C. albicans SC5314 \mathbf{a}/α

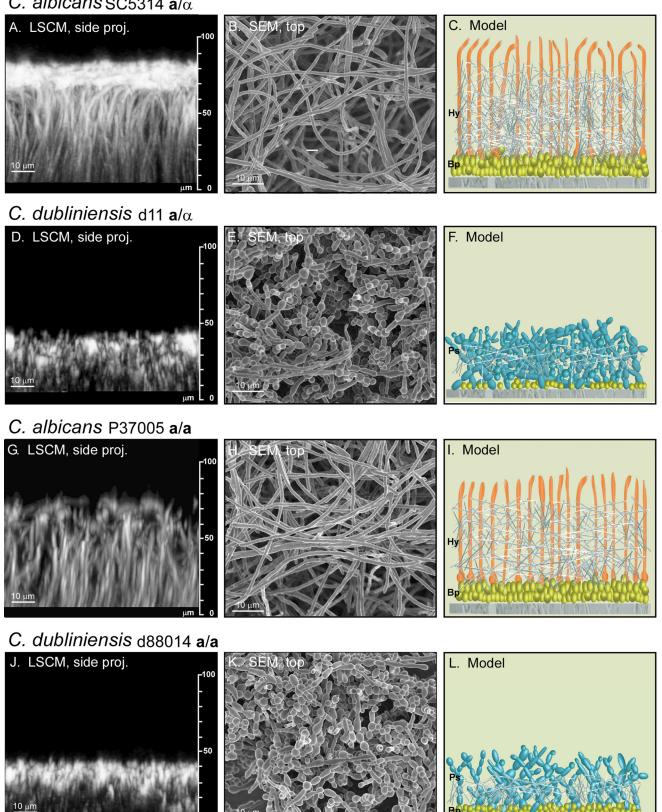


FIG 4 Comparison of the cellular architecture of MTL-heterozygous and MTL-homozygous C. albicans and C. dubliniensis biofilms. (A, D, G, J) Side views of projection images of laser scanning confocal microscopy stacks of 500 scans of calcofluor white-stained 48-h biofilms of representative strains of a/α and a/a biofilms of C. albicans and C. dubliniensis. (B, E, H, K) Scanning electron microscopy images (top view) of 48-h biofilms. Note the dominance of true hyphae in the C. albicans a/α and a/a biofilms and the dominance of pseudohyphae in the C. dubliniensis a/α and a/a biofilms. (C, F, I, L) Models of biofilm architecture deduced by examining individual LSCM scans in the stacks of 500 scans each. The white threads represent extracellular matrix. Bp, basal yeast cell polylayer (yellow); Hy, true hyphae (orange); Ps, pseudohyphae (blue). Scale bars, 10 μm.

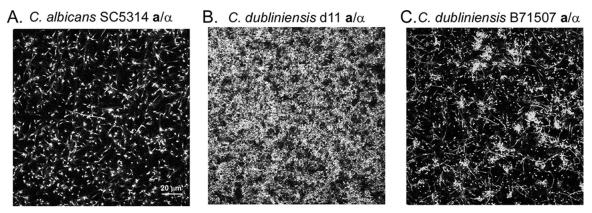


FIG 5 Architecture of hyphae and pseudohyphae of representative 48-h biofilms, revealed by viewing from the top LSCM scans extracted from the middle of the 500 scans taken through the entire biofilm. (A) *C. albicans* \mathbf{a}/α strain SC5314. Note that the punctate pattern suggests that the hyphae in the middle of the biofilm are vertically oriented. (B) *C. dubliniensis* \mathbf{a}/α strain d11. Note the mesh of pseudohyphae, with no directionality. (C) *C. dubliniensis* \mathbf{a}/α strain B71507. Note that this particular strain forms a biofilm that contains both punctate hyphal areas and patches of pseudohyphae. Scale bar, 20 μ m.

MTL-homozygous biofilm thickness and mass. Measurements of thickness using side views of LSCM projection images (e.g., Fig. 4A, D, G, and J) revealed a significant difference between biofilms formed by white cells of MTL-homozygous strains of C. albicans and by those of C. dubliniensis. The mean thickness of the 12 C. albicans MTL-homozygous biofilms was 57 \pm 3 μ m, 25% less than that of *C. albicans* \mathbf{a}/α biofilms (*P* value < 0.05) (Table 1), a difference previously reported (32). The mean thickness (\pm standard deviation) of biofilms formed by the eight MTL-homozygous C. dubliniensis strains was 37 \pm 5 μ m, 19% less than C. dubliniensis \mathbf{a}/α biofilms (P value < 0.05) and 35% less than C. albicans MTL-homozygous biofilms (P value < 0.05) (Table 1). However, even though the thickness of MTL-homozygous white cell biofilms of C. dubliniensis was less than that of C. albicans, the mean dry weight of the two were statistically indistinguishable. The mean dry weights of 10 MTL-homozygous C. albicans and 15 MTL-homozygous C. dubliniensis biofilms were 0.75 \pm 0.13 and 0.67 ± 0.29 mg per biofilm, respectively (Fig. 7C and D, respectively). The difference was not significant (P value > 0.05). There

was more variability among the *C. dubliniensis* strains than among the *C. albicans* strains, as indicated by the standard deviation, which was more than twice as large for *C. dubliniensis* (Fig. 7C and D, respectively).

Minority opaque cell stimulation. We previously showed that the addition of minority (10%) opaque cells (one-half a/a and one-half α/α) to majority (90%) white a/a or α/α cells of *C. albicans* stimulates an increase in biofilm thickness, presumably because the added opaque cells secrete pheromone (32–34, 36, 54). We also showed previously that the addition of minority opaque cells to majority white cells did not affect the general architecture of the biofilm that formed. Stimulated biofilms still consisted of a basal yeast cell polylayer and an upper region of vertical hyphae embedded in an extracellular matrix (34, 36). We therefore tested whether the addition of minority opaque cells stimulated the thickness and/or architecture of biofilms formed by majority white cells of *C. albicans* opaque cells to white cells of five test strains of *C. albicans* stimulated biofilm thickness by between 23 and 33%, with a mean \pm

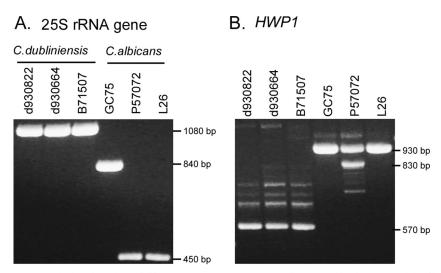


FIG 6 Verification that strain B71507, which is the only *C. dubliniensis* strain to contain vertically oriented hyphae in a 48-h biofilm, is in fact of that species by PCR. Discrimination was based on the size polymorphism of the intron of the 25S rRNA gene and of the *HWP1* gene.

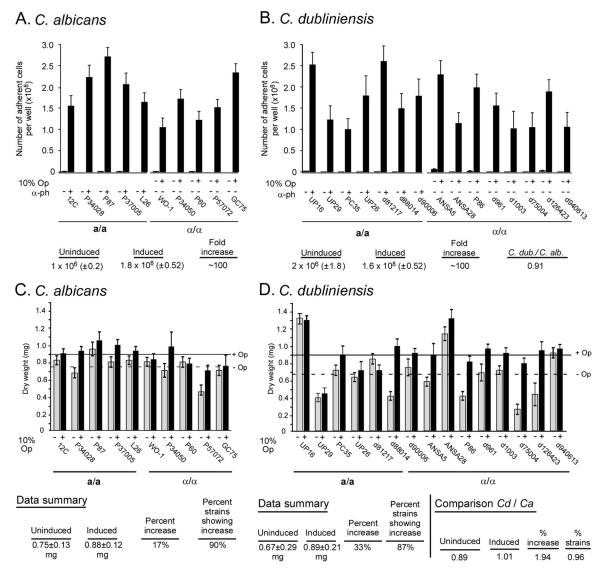


FIG 7 The variability of α -pheromone (or minority opaque cell) stimulation of adhesion and the variability of unstimulated and minority opaque cell-stimulated dry weight of white MTL-homozygous biofilms are similar among strains of C. albicans and C. dubliniensis. (A and B) α -Pheromone or minority (10%) opaque cell (1:1, C. albicans a/a and α/α) stimulation of adhesion to tissue culture plastic of a/a and α/α planktonic cells, respectively, of C. albicans and C. dubliniensis strains. The means \pm standard deviations of uninduced and induced adherent cells per well and the fold increases due to induction are presented at the bottom of panels. (C and D) Minority opaque cell stimulation of dry weight for 48-h a/a and α/α biofilms of C. albicans and C. dubliniensis, respectively. The solid or dashed horizontal lines represent the means in the presence or absence, respectively, of minority opaque cells. A data summary of the means \pm standard deviations of uninduced and induced dry weights, percent increases due to induction, and percentages of strains induced are presented at the bottom of the panels. $-\alpha$ ph, no α pheromone added; $+\alpha$ ph, α pheromone added; $-\alpha$ ph, no addition of 10% opaque cells.

standard deviation of 28% \pm 4% (Table 2). Stimulation in all strains had no effect upon biofilm architecture (Table 2). In the case of *C. dubliniensis*, the addition of minority *C. dubliniensis* opaque cells (one-half **a/a** and one-half α/α) to majority white cells stimulated thickness in the three tested strains between 17 and 31%, with a mean \pm standard deviation of 22% \pm 8% (Table 2). The addition of minority *C. albicans* opaque cells caused a much larger increase in thickness than did the addition of minority *C. dubliniensis* opaque cells. *C. albicans* opaque cells stimulated thickness between 37 and 59%, with a mean \pm standard deviation of 46% \pm 11%, over twice the impact of minority *C. dubliniensis* opaque cells (Table 2). The impact of minority opaque cells on dry weight was also compared between the two species, but in

this case only for stimulation by 10% *C. albicans* opaque cells. For *C. albicans*, the mean stimulation of the dry weight of 10 strains was 17% (Fig. 7C), while that of 15 *C. dubliniensis* strains was 33% (Fig. 7D).

In spite of the significant difference between pheromone-stimulated C. albicans and C. dubliniensis in mean thickness (Table 2), the mean dry weight of the two were statistically indistinguishable (0.88 \pm 0.12 mg per biofilm and 0.89 \pm 0.21 mg per biofilm, respectively [Fig. 7C and D, respectively]). Finally, the architecture of MTL-homozygous C. dubliniensis biofilms stimulated with minority C. dubliniensis or C. albicans opaque cells was examined in the three strains by LSCM. Minority C. dubliniensis opaque cells had no effects on the basal yeast cell polylayer, but minority C.

"a Symbols: ++++,+++,++,+, level of traits to relative to P37037 (a/a). — indicates trait is absent

		Upper biofilm zone	ξυ							
	Majority white cell	Addition of 10%	Opaque cell	Avg biofilm thickness	% inducted	Yeast cell	Hyphal	Vertical orientation		Extracellular
Species	strain (zygosity)	opaque cells	species	\pm SD (μ m)	thickness	basal layer	upper layer	of hyphae	Pseudohyphae matrix	matrix
C. albicans	P37037 (a/a)	No	Ι	51 ± 3		++++	+ + + +	++++	Ι	+++++
		Yes	C. albicans	68 + 8	33	+ + + +		++++	I	++++
	P37005 (a/a)	No	I	57 ± 5		+++++	++++	+ + + +	I	++++
		Yes	C. albicans	72 ± 6	26	+ + + +	++++	++++	I	++++
	P37039 (a/a)	No	I	57 ± 2		+++++	+++++	+++++	I	+++++
		Yes	C. albicans	70 ± 1	23	+++++	+++++	+ + + +	I	+++++
	P37037 (α/α)	No	I	61 ± 4		+++++	++++	+++++	I	+++++
		Yes	C. albicans	81 + 5	33	+++++	++++	+ + + +	I	+++++
	P37039 (α/α)	No	I	56 ± 2		+++++	++++	+++++	I	+++++
		Yes	C. albicans	71 ± 2	27	+++++	+++++	+ + + + +	I	+ + + + +
C. dubliniensis	d81217 (a/a)	No	I	32 ± 2		+ + +	I	I	I	+
		Yes	C. dubliniensis	42 ± 2	31	+++	+	I	+++	++++
		Yes	C. albicans	51 ± 2	59	++++	+	+	++	++++
	ANSA5 (α/α)	No	I	38 ± 2		++	I	l	++++	+
		Yes	C. dubliniensis	45 ± 1	18	++	+	l	++++	I
		Yes	C. albicans	55 ± 2	44	++++	+	l	++++	++
	$d126423 (\alpha/\alpha)$	No	I	35 ± 2		++++	I	l	+	+
		Yes	C. dubliniensis	41 ± 1	17	++	+	l	+	I
		Yes	C. albicans	48 ± 2	37	+++++	++	++	++	++

albicans opaque cells caused an increase (Table 2). In all three strains, both minority *C. dubliniensis* and *C. albicans* opaque cells stimulated a low level of hypha formation, in two cases with small patches of vertically orientated hyphae (Table 2). However, in no strain did minority opaque cells of either species stimulate a uniform upper region of vertically oriented hyphae embedded in a dense ECM (Table 2). In the case of C. dubliniensis strain d81217, which when unstimulated did not form an upper region of pseudohyphae, minority opaque cells of both species stimulated an upper layer of pseudohyphae.

Explaining the mass-volume contradiction. The significant difference in mean thickness but the similarity in mean dry weight between C. albicans and C. dubliniensis biofilms, either unstimulated or pheromone stimulated, presented a conundrum. This may be explained in part by the difference in cytoplasmic density between hyphae and pseudohyphae, revealed by differential interference contrast microscopy. While the cellular compartments of true hyphae in *C. albicans* biofilm were dominated by a sequence of vacuoles with aqueous, particulate-free interiors (Fig. 8A and B), the compartments of the pseudohyphae of *C. dubliniensis* biofilms contained roughly one-half of the number of vacuoles and contained a far greater proportion of particulate cytoplasm (Fig. 8C and D). An additional explanation may be that the pseudohyphal mesh formed in biofilms of MTL-homozygous C. dubliniensis cells appears to be more compact, containing more cell compartments per unit volume than the vertically oriented, nonbranching hyphae in C. albicans biofilms (compare Fig. 4H and K and Fig. 4I and L). Although C. albicans biofilms contain far more ECM than C. dubliniensis biofilms (Tables 1 and 2), the collapse of ECM during dehydration procedures suggests that it has a very high water content. Hence, although the C. albicans biofilm is significantly thicker, it may contain more fluid in the extracellular space.

DISCUSSION

TABLE 2 Effects on biofilm of adding minority opaque cells to majority white cells of Candida albicans and Candida dubliniensis

Sequencing of the genome of *C. dubliniensis* revealed that it was highly similar to that of *C. albicans*, with a high degree of synteny (13). Furthermore, sequencing revealed that in *C. albicans*, but not in C. dubliniensis, there has been an expansion of gene families implicated in pathogenesis (13) and 168 species-specific genes. Moreover, Moran et al. (23) reviewed evidence suggesting that C. dubliniensis is undergoing reductive evolution (55), in part through pseudogenization and gene loss. It has been suggested (8) that the failure to expand specific gene families and reductive evolution are the reasons why C. dubliniensis is isolated far less frequently than C. albicans (56), rarely causes bloodstream candidemias (27, 57), and is less virulent in animal models than C. albicans (15, 19, 20, 58). It had also been demonstrated prior to sequencing of the C. dubliniensis genome that genomic reorganization occurred at an extremely high frequency in C. dubliniensis compared to C. albicans, leading to highly unstable karyotypes (24–26). Indeed, in a DNA fingerprinting analysis of 10 strains of C. dubliniensis using three different midrepeat sequence probes specific for C. dubliniensis, no two isolates exhibited the same or even similar Southern blot hybridization patterns (24). Furthermore, hybridization of the contour-clamped homogeneous electric field (CHEF)-separated chromosomes of three strains with these probes or staining with ethidium bromide gave three distinct strain-specific patterns (24). Magee et al. (26) found different CHEF karyotypes for seven additional strains of C. dubliniensis.

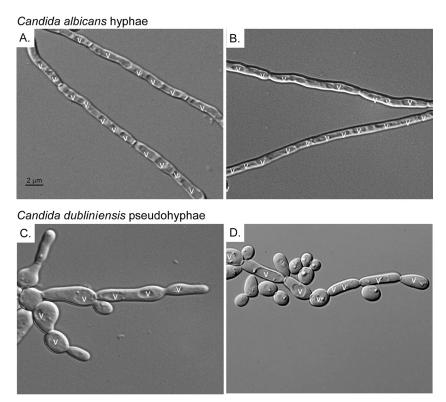


FIG 8 The higher degree of vacuolization of *C. albicans* hyphae and the greater proportion of nonvacuolar cytoplasm in *C. dubliniensis* pseudohyphae may account in part for the observation that although 48-h hypha-dominated *C. albicans* biofilms are thicker than 48-h pseudohypha-dominated *C. dubliniensis* biofilms, the two have similar mean dry weights. V, vacuole. Scale bar, 2 μm.

Joly et al. (25) presented evidence that changes occurred in part as a result of the reorganization of the repeat sequence RPS, found in *C. albicans* as well as *C. dubliniensis*. They suggested that RPS clusters functioned as recombination hot spots and that the higher rate of reorganization in *C. dubliniensis* was due in part to the observation that *C. dubliniensis*, on average, has approximately 2.5 times as many RPS units as *C. albicans*. Reorganization at RPS clusters was shown to occur in one strain after only 200 generations (25). This high level of genomic instability in *C. dubliniensis* may explain the higher level of variability and the deterioration of complex developmental programs, such as hypha formation (14, 15).

However, there is one additional factor that is rarely considered in studies of strain variability in C. dubliniensis, namely, the configuration of the MTL locus. Pujol et al. (16) found in an analysis of 82 C. dubliniensis isolates that 27 (33%) were homozygous at the MTL locus (a/a or α/α). Several previous studies of C. albicans (27, 28, 59) found that <10% of clinical isolates were MTL homozygous. In the most thorough of these studies (27), 110 (8.5%) of 1,294 C. albicans isolates were found to be MTL homozygous. The reason that the configuration of the MTL locus represents an important issue that should not be overlooked in studies of C. dubliniensis is that MTL-heterozygous and MTLhomozygous cells have been shown to differ phenotypically in C. albicans. In C. albicans, MTL-homozygous cells are able to undergo white-opaque switching, whereas MTL-heterozygous cells are not (28, 29); and MTL-homozygous cells are able to mate, whereas MTL-heterozygous cells are not (29, 30). MTL-homozygous cells form biofilms that are functionally different from those

formed in MTL-heterozygous cells (31-33). While MTLheterozygous biofilms are impenetrable by human white blood cells and impermeable to both low- and high-molecular-weight molecules, MTL-homozygous biofilms are both permeable and penetrable (32, 35, 60, 61). While MTL-homozygous cells respond to pheromone by activating the mitogen-activated protein (MAP) kinase pathway to form a biofilm, MTL-heterozygous cells do not (32, 33). While MTL-homozygous cells treated with pheromone acquire adhesivity and upregulate genes associated with the MAPkinase pathway, MTL-heterozygous cells do not (32, 34-37; results presented here). Planktonic MTL-homozygous cells are on average less susceptible than MTL-heterozygous cells to fluconazole (42% versus 5%), itraconazole (21% versus 4%), voriconazole (17% versus 2%), and flucytosine (25% versus 10%) (27). And finally, while cells within an MTL-heterozygous biofilm are relatively resistant to fluconazole, cells in MTL-homozygous biofilms are more susceptible (32-35, 54). It therefore may be less of an issue in studies of C. albicans to verify the configuration of the MTL locus, because only 5 to 10% of strains are MTL homozygous, but it is a major issue for C. dubliniensis, in which one in every three strains is MTL homozygous. For that reason, we have analyzed switching and biofilm formation in MTL-homozygous strains of C. dubliniensis by comparing them with *C. albicans*. A summary of the results of this comparison is presented in Table 3.

The white-opaque transition. The capacity for *MTL*-homozygous white cells of *C. albicans* and *C. dubliniensis* to switch from white to opaque has been shown to be basic to mating (16, 28, 29) and, in the case of *C. albicans*, to the formation of a white cell

TABLE 3 Comparison between C. albicans and C. dubliniensis developmental traits and responses of MTL-homozygous cells analyzed in this study^a

		% of strains or means \pm SD of traits (no. of strains tested)			
Developmental program or response	Aspect	C. albicans	C. dubliniensis		
Switching	Wh-to-Op switching among strains ^b	85% (26)	56% (27)		
-	Op stability among strains ^{b,c}	94% (22)	27% (15)		
	Wh-to-Op switching frequency ^d	$1.4 \times 10^{-3} (5)$	$<3 \times 10^{-4} (5)$		
	Op-to-Wh switching frequency (Op stability) ^d	$1.4 \times 10^{-1} (5)$	$5.0 \times 10^{-1} (5)$		
	Alt colony formation by Op cells ^d	0% (5)	100% (5)		
	Wh-to-Op switching in CO ₂	$9 \times 10^{-1} (5)$	$1.2 \times 10^{-3} (5)$		
	Op-to-Wh switching in CO ₂ (Op stability)	$<6 \times 10^{-3} (5)$	$1 \times 10^{-1} (5)$		
Cell phenotypes	Uniformity of Wh cell phenotype within each strain	100% (5)	100% (5)		
	Uniformity of Op cell phenotype within each strain	100% (5)	0% (5)		
Stimulation of planktonic white cells by pheromone or minority Op cells	Adhesion to plastic	100% (10)	100% (15)		
Biofilm formation	Basal yeast cell polylayer	100% (12)	100% (8)		
	Homogeneous basal yeast cell polylayer	100% (12)	62% (8)		
	Upper layer of vertical hyphae	100% (12)	0% (8)		
	Upper layer of pseudohyphae	0% (12)	87% (8)		
	Dense ECM in upper layer	100% (12)	0% (8)		
	Biofilm thickness (unstimulated) ^e	$57 \pm 3 \mu m (12)$	$37 \pm 5 \mu m (8)$		
	Biofilm thickness (stimulated) ^e	$72 \pm 5 \mu\text{m} (5)$	$51 \pm 4 \mu m (3)$		
	Biofilm dry wt (unstimulated) ^e	$0.75 \pm 0.13 \text{ mg} (10)$	$0.67 \pm 0.29 \mathrm{mg}(15)$		
	Biofilm dry wt (stimulated) ^e	$0.88 \pm 0.12 \text{ mg} (10)$	$0.89 \pm 0.21 \mathrm{mg} (15)$		
	Op cell stimulation of thickness	100% (5)	100% (3)		
	Op cell stimulation of dry wt	90% (10)	87% (15)		

^a Op, opaque; Wh, white; wt, weight.

biofilm (32). Previously, using a lower threshold for switching, we showed that one-half of 27 MTL-homozygous C. dubliniensis strains switched (16), but we did not compare variability side by side with a set of randomly selected *C. albicans* strains. Nor did we compare the frequencies of individual strains. Here, using highdensity serial plating of white cells, resulting in approximately 15,000 total colonies, we found that the proportion of strains that formed one or more opaque colonies or sectors was 85% of 26 natural C. albicans strains and 56% of 27 natural C. dubliniensis strains. Then, in a comparison of five random *C. albicans* strains that switched from white to opaque, using low-density plating and five C. dubliniensis strains that exhibited the highest switching frequencies in the initial high-density plating experiments, we used low-density plating to assess frequency. We found that the average switching frequency from white to opaque was far higher in random C. albicans strains, as was the stability of the opaque phenotype. Phenotypic instability of the opaque phenotype was accompanied by a high level of variability of cellular phenotypes in the opaque cell population of each MTL-homozygous strain of C. dubliniensis. We further found that a high concentration of CO₂, which causes mass conversion of white to opaque and nearly complete stabilization of the opaque phenotype in C. albicans (50), had no effect on C. dubliniensis. High CO2 neither induced switching nor stabilized the opaque phenotype. The possible ramifications of these differences are profound. First, the decrease in switching frequencies from white to opaque and the instability of the opaque

phenotype in *C. dubliniensis* strains would affect the efficiency of mating, especially in natural niches such as the gastrointestinal tract and tissues of the host, which maintain high CO₂ levels (62, 63). Second, the decrease in the frequency of white-to-opaque switching and the increase in opaque instability would negatively impact the capacity of *MTL*-homozygous *C. dubliniensis* white cells to form complex biofilms, which has been shown in *C. albicans* to facilitate mating between minority opaque cells that appear through spontaneous switching (32). It would suggest that the mating event would be even rarer among *C. dubliniensis* than among *C. albicans* strains.

Pheromone response and biofilm formation. The experimental model that we have used to form complex biofilms of *MTL*-heterozygous and *MTL*-homozygous cells (31, 34–36) was derived from that of Douglas and coworkers in the 1990s (51–53). Because it had been shown that in the formation of biofilms by *MTL*-homozygous white cells of *C. albicans*, pheromone stimulates adhesion, the first step in *MTL*-homozygous biofilm formation (32, 33, 37), we tested pheromone-stimulated adhesion in white cells of 15 strains of *C. dubliniensis*. The induction of adhesion was approximately 100-fold for all of the 10 test strains of *C. albicans* and all of the 15 test strains of *C. dubliniensis*. The variability between strains was similar, demonstrating the conservation of this trait. In addition, the morphologies of planktonic white-phase cells of five *MTL*-homozygous test strains of *C. albicans* and of five strains of *C. dubliniensis* were found similarly

^b Data from serial high-density plating experiments (∼300 colonies per plate).

 $[^]c$ Strains in which <10% of the opaque cells plated formed white colonies.

^d Data from serial low-density plating experiments (\sim 30 to 50 colonies per plate).

^e Unstimulated, without addition of 10% opaque cells ($\mathbf{a/a} + \alpha/\alpha$); stimulated, with addition of 10% opaque cells.

round and relatively uniform in size. Hence, *MTL*-homozygous strains of *C. dubliniensis* and *C. albicans* have similarly conserved both the yeast phase morphology of white cells and their initial responses to pheromone.

However, the architecture of both the mature MTL-heterozygous and MTL-homozygous biofilms formed by C. dubliniensis not only differed from that of *C. albicans* but also exhibited much higher architectural variability. In biofilms formed by the three tested C. albicans \mathbf{a}/α strains, cells formed a basal yeast cell polylayer and an upper layer of vertically oriented hyphae encapsulated in ECM, as has previously been described (34, 35). The uniformity of the architecture among the three C. albicans \mathbf{a}/α strains was high. Of the six \mathbf{a}/α *C. dubliniensis* strains, four formed a basal yeast cell polylayer but two did not. Of the four that did, three formed upper regions composed primarily of pseudohyphae. The two without basal yeast cell polylayers formed biofilms composed predominately of pseudohyphae. One strain, B71507, formed a basal yeast cell polylayer and an upper region of both pseudohyphae and patches of vertically oriented hyphae encapsulated in ECM, the latter very similar in architecture to the biofilms of \mathbf{a}/α C. albicans. The propensity for pseudohyphae rather than true hyphae in C. dubliniensis \mathbf{a}/α biofilm was first reported 14 years ago for strain NCPF3949 by Ramage et al. (22), but the MTL configuration of that strain was unknown.

For the 12 *MTL*-homozygous *C. albicans* strains, the biofilms formed by white cell populations in the absence of added minority opaque cells were again architecturally uniform, including a basal yeast cell polylayer and an upper region of vertically oriented hyphae encapsulated in ECM. For all eight *MTL*-homozygous *C. dubliniensis* strains, the biofilms formed by white cells in the absence of added minority opaque cells were not architecturally uniform. All contained basal yeast cell polylayers, but the basal layers varied in thickness, and in three strains, there was a minority of pseudohyphae and hyphae. Seven of the eight strains formed pseudohyphal upper regions of variable thickness, but none formed a uniform upper region or even patches of vertically oriented hyphae. One strain, d81217 (a/a), formed no pseudohyphae or hyphae.

Biofilm thickness and dry weight. Both MTL-heterozygous and MTL-homozygous biofilms of C. albicans formed by white cells in the absence of added opaque cells were thicker than those of C. dubliniensis. Of all of the C. dubliniensis biofilms analyzed, including \mathbf{a}/α , $\mathbf{a/a}$, and α/α , the thickest was that of the \mathbf{a}/α strain B71507, which was the only strain that contained vertical hyphae in the upper region. But it was still 23% thinner than the average a/α C. albicans biofilm. B71507 also contained the most intensely staining ECM. Even though the average thickness of MTL-homozygous C. dubliniensis biofilms was significantly less than that of MTL-homozygous C. albicans biofilms, the average dry weight was similar. This inconsistency appears to reflect a difference in cellular density. We have shown here that the cellular compartments of pseudohyphae contain more particulate cytoplasm than do true hyphae, which are highly vacuolated and hence must contain more water. In addition, the mesh of pseudohyphae in C. dubliniensis biofilms appeared more compact than the array of vertical hyphae in *C. albicans*, and the pseudohyphae were thicker than the vertically oriented, true hyphae. Finally, the increased ECM of C. albicans biofilms may also contribute to a decrease in density, given that the ECM may be a gel made up predominately

of water. The similarity of dry weights between the two species suggests that a mechanism that regulates mass has been conserved in both species and that final mass is independent of cellular phenotype and ECM deposition.

Opaque cell stimulation of biofilms. It has been demonstrated that the addition of minority opaque cells, a source of pheromone, to white cells, stimulates final biofilm thickness (32–34, 36, 54). Here, we have shown that minority opaque cells, either of C. dubliniensis or C. albicans, stimulate the thickness of MTL-homozygous white cell biofilms of C. dubliniensis. Minority opaque cells of C. albicans are more effective than those of C. dubliniensis, presumably because the opaque phenotype of C. dubliniensis is extremely unstable (16; data shown here). More importantly, the thickness of the biofilms of all five tested C. albicans strains and all three tested C. dubliniensis strains was stimulated. Using only minority opaque cells of C. albicans, we also found that 90% of the dry weight of the biofilms formed by 10 C. albicans strains and 87% of 15 *C. dubliniensis* strains were stimulated. Together, these results indicate that opaque cell stimulation of biofilms is similarly conserved in both C. albicans and C. dubliniensis.

Evolution of a pseudohypha-dominated biofilm. We have found that while several developmental traits of MTL-homozygous white cells of C. dubliniensis, compared with MTL white cells of C. albicans, appear to either be degenerating or have been lost, other traits have been conserved. Most importantly, the traits that have been conserved are related to MTL-homozygous biofilm development. In this context, the predominance of pseudohyphae could have two alternative explanations. First, it could be considered the degeneration of a program that originally evolved to generate a hypha-dominated biofilm, which has remained intact in C. albicans. It is reasonable to suggest that this is the case for two reasons. First, C. tropicalis appears to form biofilms dominated by true hyphae (64). It diverged from the ancestor of C. albicans and C. dubliniensis approximately 30 million years ago, before the separation of the latter species (12). Therefore, a hypha-dominated biofilm may be considered to have preceded the pseudohyphadominated biofilm formed by C. dubliniensis. Second, of all of the \mathbf{a}/α , α/α , and \mathbf{a}/\mathbf{a} C. dubliniensis strains tested, strain B71507 formed a biofilm containing subregions of vertically oriented hyphae and increased ECM, architectural traits of the upper region of C. albicans biofilms. This suggests that this trait of B71507 biofilms is vestigial. However, if the loss of a hypha-dominated biofilm represents a degenerative process in C. dubliniensis, why would other biofilm-related traits, including the cellular phenotype of white cells, pheromone-stimulated adhesion of white cells, opaque cell stimulation of biofilm thickness, biofilm dry weight, and opaque cell stimulation of dry weight, all be conserved in C. dubliniensis? An alternative explanation is that C. dubliniensis is transitioning from a hypha- to a pseudohypha-dominated biofilm due to different selective pressures. Two aspects of C. dubliniensis colonization may provide insight into those selective pressures. First, C. dubliniensis is more often recovered from oropharyngeal samples (11). Second, C. dubliniensis is isolated in a majority of cases in combination with C. albicans (65–68), which could explain why opaque cells of *C. albicans* are more stimulatory than opaque cells of C. dubliniensis in the growth of a C. dubliniensis biofilm. This evolutionary puzzle, therefore, warrants further exploration.

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